# Preparing for the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT)

**Concepts and terminology related to Language, language use and the Background to Language Learning and Teaching**

**Describing language skills and subskills. Speaking.**

# Contents

**Module 1. Language and background to language learning and teaching. Part 1 – Describing Language and Language skills. Concepts and terminology for describing language skills and subskills.**

**Unit 8 – Speaking and subskills**

## ASPECTS OF THE TEACHING/LEARNING OF STRUCTURES

|  | Form | Meaning |
|---|---|---|
| Listening | Perception and recognition of the spoken form of the structure | Comprehension of what the spoken structure means in context |
| Speaking | Production of well-formed examples in speech | Use of the structure to convey meanings in speech |
| Reading | Perception and recognition of the written form | Comprehension of what the written structure means in context |
| Writing | Production of well-formed examples in writing | Use of the structure to convey meanings in writing |

# Unit 8 – Section 1 Speaking and subskills

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**Module 1. Language and background to language learning and teaching. Part 1 – Describing Language and Language skills. Concepts and terminology for describing language skills and subskills. Unit 8 – Speaking and subskills.**

**Speaking**

When speaking, you have to be able to:
• use different parts of the mouth and body from those needed in your own language
• make individual sounds and combine them
• produce correct stress on individual words and on longer stretches depending on the meaning you want to convey
• use intonation (including tones across discourse)
• work with appropriate rhythm and pace
• express your own meaning and your own personality by choosing from a range of physical and verbal expressions
• interact with people appropriately, repairing breakdown of messages, taking turns and speaking alone for short and long periods
• describe, agree, beg, plead, insult ... and all as naturally as possible Naturalness also involves clothing, posture and body orientation, gesture, body contact, facial expression and gaze.

**The study of the Unit is made under the basis of a sub-skills approach,** dividing the skill into a set of component parts and studying them individually.

| Subskill of Speaking | Definition | Example/s |
|---|---|---|
| **Self-monitoring** | Also **self-observation. This consists in** being able to identify and self-correct mistakes. 1 observing and recording information about one's own behaviour for the purpose of achieving a better understanding of and control over one's behaviour. In teacher education, teachers may be taught procedures for self-monitoring as an aspect of their on-going professional development. Techniques used include keeping a journal of their teaching experiences, regular and systematic use of self-reports (see self reporting), or through making audio or video recordings of their own lessons. 2 checking one's performance during a learning task as a metacognitive strategy during language learning. Is concerned with language users being able to identify and self-correct mistakes. In this learning strategy learner pays attention to their own language to make sure it is accurate. Checking one's performance during a learning task as a metacognitive strategy during language learning. Self-monitoring at the formulation stage may result in a in a slowing down or a pause and the subsequent backtracking and re-phrasing of an utterance. Is the ability to make running repairs either in response to self-monitoring or to the messages conveyed by one's interlocutors. Repair can take the form of an immediate correction or 'retrace or re-winds an utterance and starts again, but with a different sequence of words or phrases. This is one of the final stages of speech (or writing) which demonstrates the important role feedback plays in language production. . | To pay attention to the own language to make sure it is accurate. e.g. Dad, I don´t think you sh-,I think you should leave Chris home Saturday. |

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| Subskill of Speaking | Definition | Example/s |
|---|---|---|
| **Conceptualisation** | The way in which people perceive, comprehend, and interpret the world around them. It consists in planning the message content. It draws on background knowledge, knowledge about the topic, about the speech situation and on knowledge of patterns of discourse. The conceptualiser includes a 'monitor', which checks everything that occurs in the interaction to ensure that the communication goes to plan. This enables speakers to self-correct for expression, grammar and pronunciation. In cognitive grammar, expressions differ in meaning depending not only on the entities they designate but also the construals employed to structure their conceived scenes.is concerned with planning the message content. It draws on background knowledge, knowledge about the topic, about the speech situation and on knowledge of patterns of discourse. The conceptualiser includes a 'monitor', which checks everything that occurs in the interaction to ensure that the communication goes to plan. This enables speakers to self-correct for expression, grammar and pronunciation. | E.g. A speaker may choose to say my dad or my father, Mary lives in Chicago or Mary is living in Chicago, based not on objective facts about the situation described but the perspective from which a speaker chooses to view a scene. |
| **Interactive listening** | This involves listening, responding and giving feedback. | |

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| Subskill of Speaking | Definition | Example/s |
|---|---|---|
| **Formulation** | After conceptualisation, the formulator finds the words and phrases to express the meanings, sequencing them and putting in appropriate grammatical markers (such as inflections, auxiliaries, articles). It also prepares the sound patterns of the words to be used: LI errors of pronunciation very commonly involve switching sounds between words that are separated from each other; such switches suggest that the pronunciation of words must be prepared in batches prior to pronunciation | |
| **Articulation** | This involves the motor control of the articulatory organs; in English: the lips, tongue, teeth, alveolar palate, velum, glottis, mouth cavity and breath. This process of use of the organs of speech to produce sounds. Vowel sounds are produced primarily by the action of the tongue and the lips. Consonant sounds are determined by the point at which the air stream is subjected to. The combined effect of all these variables allows speakers of English produce a range of over 40 phonemes. These are divided almost equally between vowels and consonants: the exact number will vary according to the variety of English spoken, e.g. British or American. At the same time as these articulatory processes are engaged continual changes in loudness, pitch direction, tempo and pausing serve to organise the sounds into meaningful word forms and the words into meaningful utterances. All this physical work happens at great speed. It is estimated that proficiency speakers produce 15 phonemes a second. | |

**Module 1. Language and background to language learning and teaching. Part 1 – Describing Language and Language skills. Concepts and terminology for describing language skills and subskills. Unit 8 – Speaking and subskills.**

| Subskill of Speaking | Definition | Example/s |
|---|---|---|
| Brainstorming | Brainstorming is the first resource to use it to select and expand one idea in the speaking process.<br>Thinking of everything we can say about the topic. A large group, or even the whole class, will contribute ideas, or thoughts, or words, off the top of their heads, related to a particular subject or problem. All contributions are listed without comment, and then the children use their list to select tasks or topics for further work. Smaller groups, even pairs, can also gather thoughts in this way. | Pairs quickly remember and say three reasons why people write poetry, then share their ideas with another pair.<br><br>To ask to a group of students before to start, think as many ideas as they can. |
| Paraphrasing | Paraphrase is an expression of the meaning of a word or phrase using other words or phrases, often in an attempt to make the meaning easier to understand.<br>Finding another way to say something that has been heard using different words when you cannot think of the right language. | For example, *to make (someone or something) appear or feel younger* is a paraphrase of the English verb *rejuvenate*. Dictionary definitions often take the form of paraphrases of the words they are trying to define. |

**Module 1. Language and background to language learning and teaching. Part 1 – Describing Language and Language skills. Concepts and terminology for describing language skills and subskills. Unit 8 – Speaking and subskills.**

| Subskill of Speaking | Definition | Example/s |
|---|---|---|
| Using interactive strategies | To use strategies when speaking to keep people involved and interested in what is said or to keep communication going. | Eye contact, gestures. |
| Memorising | This strategy consists to say new words in the head over and over again in order to learn vocabulary, writing new words down on the notebook with a translation next to them or creating pictures of them in order to learn new words. | Create pictures in mind to learn new words. |
| Using opportunities for practice | In this strategy a learner seeks for speaking English opportunities and practising whenever possible in order to develop oral fluency. | To talk with native speakers in social situations. |

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| Subskill of Speaking | Definition | Example/s |
|---|---|---|
| **Approximation** | Using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the word you cannot remember as closely as possible. | e.g. `ship' for `sailing boat'). |
| **Circumlocution** | Describing or exemplifying the target word you cannot remember. | e.g. `the thing you open bottles with' for `corkscrew'. |
| **Code switching** | Including an L1 word with L1 pronunciation or an L3 word with L3 pronunciation in L2 speech. | |
| **Foreignising** | Using an L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonologically (i.e. with an L2 pronunciation) and/or morphologically (e.g. adding to it an L2 suffix). | |
| **Literal translation** | Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1 to L2. | |
| **Use of non-linguistic means** | Mime, gesture, facial expression or sound imitation. | |
| **Use of all-purpose words** | Extending a general, `empty' lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking. | e.g. the use of `thing', `stuff', `make', `do', as well as using words like `thingie', `what-do-you-call-it', `what's-his-name', etc. |
| **Use of fillers and other hesitation devices** | Using filling words or gambits to fill pauses and to gain time to think. | e.g. `well', `now let me see', `as a matter of fact',etc. |
| **Word-coinage** | Creating a non-existing L2 word based on a supposed rule. | e.g. `vegetarianist' for `vegetarian'. |

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| Subskill of Speaking | Definition | Example/s |
|---|---|---|
| **Message abandonment** | Leaving a message unfinished because of some Language difficulty. Topic avoidance: Avoiding topic areas or concepts which pose Language difficulties. | |
| **Message replacement** | Substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it. | |
| **Repetition** | Repeating a word or a string of words immediately after they were said (either by the speaker or the conversation partner). | |

# Section 2 The key concepts in oral communication

**Module 1. Language and background to language learning and teaching. Part 1 – Describing Language and Language skills. Concepts and terminology for describing language skills and subskills. The key concepts in oral communication.**

| Key concept | Definition | Example/s |
|---|---|---|
| Interaction | The way in which a language is used by interlocutors. Is a two-way communication that involves using language and body language to keep the listener involved in what we are saying and to check that they understand our meaning. The main rules for interaction are:<br>Rule 1. Speakers should take turns to hold the floor. This implies that no two speakers should be speaking at once, at least not for any sustaining period of time.<br>Rule 2. Long silences are to be avoided.<br>Rule 3. Listen when other speakers are speaking. This include:<br>Recognizing the appropriate moment to get a turn.<br>Signalling the fact that you want to speak.<br>Holding the floor while you have a turn.<br>Recognizing when other speakers are signalling their wish to speak.<br>Yielding the turn.<br>Signalling the fact that you are listening. | |
| Turn taking | When someone speaks in a conversation this is called a turn. Speaking and then allowing another person to speak to reply. In conversation, the roles of speaker and listener change constantly. The person who speaks first becomes a listener as soon as the person addressed takes his or her turn in the conversation by beginning to speak. The rules for turn-taking may differ from one community to another as they do from one type of speech event (e.g. a conversation) to another (e.g. an oral test). Turn-taking and rules for turn-taking are studied in conversational analysis and discourse analysis. | |

# Section 3 Issues concerning accuracy and fluency in speaking practice.

**Module 1. Language and background to language learning and teaching. Part 1 – Describing Language and Language skills. Concepts and terminology for describing language skills and subskills. Issues concerning accuracy and fluency in speaking practice.**

The issues concerning accuracy and fluency in speaking practice they don´t seem very easy to detect sometimes. We can speak about a speech disorder while it seems an issue or viceversa, for instance, will be explained issues and disorders in speaking practice.

In the case of speech disorders, they appear in reason of a physical or emotional problem, these problems seem sometimes like a lack of precise timing, nerve, and muscle control. These problems are **stuttering, cluttering, articulation disorders, lisping and apraxia.**

**Stuttering** is a problem that interferes with fluent speech. A person who stutters may repeat the first part of a word (as in wa-wa-wa-water) or hold a single sound for a long time (as in caaaaaaake). Some people who stutter have trouble getting sounds out altogether. Stuttering is complex, and it can affect speech in many different ways.

**Cluttering** is another problem that makes a person's speech difficult to understand. Like stuttering, cluttering affects the fluency, or flow, of a person's speech. However, the difference is that cluttering is a language disorder, while stuttering is a speech disorder. A person who stutters has trouble getting out what they want to say, and a person who clutters says what they are thinking, but it becomes disorganized while actually speaking. Because of this disorganization, someone who clutters may speak in bursts or pause in unexpected places. The rhythm of cluttered speech may sound jerky, rather than smooth, and the speaker is often unaware of the problem.

**Articulation disorders** encompass a wide range of errors people can make when talking. Substituting a "w" for an "r" ("wabbit" for "rabbit"), omitting sounds ("cool" for "school"), or adding sounds to words ("pinanio" for "piano") are examples of articulation errors.

**Lisping** refers to specific substitution involving the letters "s" and "z." A person who lisps replaces those sounds with "th."

**Apraxia** (dyspraxia), also known as oral-motor speech disorder, is a problem with motor coordination or motor planning. A person with this speech problem has difficulty moving the muscles and structures necessary to form speech sounds into words.

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**Issues of speaking**

| Issues of Speaking | Definition | Example/s |
|---|---|---|
| **L1 interference or mother tongue interference** | This is when the learner´s mother tongue affects their performance in the target language. A learner may make a mistake because they use the grammatical pattern in the target language as they use in their mother tongue. The L1 grammatical pattern is not appropriate in L2. | e.g.<br>She li:vz in London in a small flat. /i/ and /i:/. |
| **Fossilisation** | The process in which incorrect language become a habit and cannot easily be corrected. | e.g. |
| **Developmental error** | An error made by a second language learner which is natural part of the language learning process because they are unconsciously organising and working out language. These types of issues are also made by children learning their first language and often disappear as their language ability improves. | e.g. |
| **Overgeneralisation** | When a student uses a grammatical rule he/she has learned, but uses it in situations when it is not needed or appropriate. | e.g.<br>A student says "There were three girls and two *mans*". (incorrect plural form – not appropriate for man). |
| **Interlanguage** | The learners own version of the second language which they speak as they learn. They create their "own" grammatical system as they are learning, which is neither their first language nor the target language but something in between the two. This version of their language changes as they progress and learn more. | e.g.<br>You should better can to go now. The learner has made up this grammatical structure, which is neither his own language nor the target language. |

**Issues of speaking**

| Issues of Speaking | Definition | Example/s |
|---|---|---|
| **Inadequate vocabulary** | Lack of vocabulary regarded as a main obstacle for spoken communication. | e.g.<br>In some social situations that involve use of highly colloquial language, a learner face a shortage of vocabulary and can't express<br>accurately what she or he want to say. |
| **Grammar as a stumbling block** | Like vocabulary, grammar is a stumbling block to their spoken English, this occurs when a learner would think about the particular grammar item being involved before producing the utterance. Second language speakers rely on "feel" for correctness without prior planning, they will make grammatical errors. | e.g.<br>Sometimes, some simple grammar points like a verb's third-person singular form, you already have the concept of subject-verb agreement in your head. But when you speak fast, you fail to observe this rule and end<br>up using 'do' when the subject is 'he'" |
| **Imperfectly learned pronunciation and intonation** | A learner has to speak carefully in order to focus on pronouncing certain words (especially those less common words) and sound clusters accurately because exists a lack of consistency between the language skills required for engagement with the demands of the speaking situation. | e.g.<br>When a learner speak fast, there will likely be inaccuracies in some sounds: problems with some particular vowels or consonants:<br>In articulation to have trouble with words that had both American & British pronunciations. |

## Issues of speaking

| Issues of Speaking | Definition | Example/s |
|---|---|---|
| **False friend** | A word in the target language which looks or sounds as if it has the same meaning as a similar word in the learners´ first language but does not. | e.g.<br>in French "libraire" is a place where people can buy books. In a library in English, you do not buy books but borrow them instead. |

# Section 4 The features of spoken texts

**Module 1. Language and background to language learning and teaching. Part 1 – Describing Language and Language skills. Concepts and terminology for describing language skills and subskills. The features of spoken texts.**

| Features of Speaking | Definition | Example/s |
|---|---|---|
| Accuracy | The use of correct forms of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. | |
| Connected Speech | Spoken language when analysed as a continuous sequence as opposed to the analysis of individual sounds or words in isolation. | |
| Appropriacy | The use of speaking activity in an appropriate level of formality or informality that suits a particular situation. | Formal exponents in formal situations, less formal exponents in less formal situations. |
| Oral Fluency | *Fluency* is the ability to speak easily, accurately, with appropriate rhythm, intonation, expression at normal speed withouth hesitation, repetition or self correction & with smooth of use of connected speech. Or can be defined in another way the ability of speaking naturally without hesitating too much. The features of fluency: <br> - Pauses may be long but not frequent. <br> - Pauses are usually filled. <br> - Pauses occur at meaningful transition points. <br> - There are long runs of syllables and words between pauses. | |
| Functions | Functions are the reasons why people communicate and the purpose of what a person is saying. These are ways of describing how particular chunks of language are used. | |
| Context | A general term used in linguistics and phonetics to refer to specific parts of an utterance (or text) near or adjacent to a unit which is the focus of attention. The occurrence of a unit (e.g. a sound, word) is partly or wholly determined by its context, which is specified in terms of the unit's relations, i.e. the other features with which it combines as a sequence. The everyday sense of the term is related | |

to this, as when one 'puts a word in context' (**contextualizes**), in order to clarify the meaning intended, as in dictionary entries. Providing a context in this way is referred to as **contextualization**. Words, it is suggested, have meaning only when seen in context. Variants of sound, grammar, etc., which are dependent on context for their occurrence are sometimes called **contextual variants** (or 'conditioned variants'); an example is the allophone (see allo-). An analysis in these terms is sometimes contact assimilation called a **contextual analysis**. Some scholars use the term co-text for context in sense (1), reserving the latter term for sense (3) below.

(2) The specification of **contexts** is a particular characteristic of the formulation of rules in generative linguistics, where forms can be classified in terms of whether they occur only within a specific formal context (**context-sensitive/ -restricted/-dependent** rules) or are independent of context (**context-free** rules). A **context-free grammar** is one in which all the rules apply regardless of context, i.e. they would be all of the type 'Rewrite X as Y', no further conditions being specified. A **context-sensitive** grammar contains some rules of the type A ⇒ B /C–D, where the forward slash means 'in the context of', and the horizontal line indicates the place in the structure where A (a single non-terminal symbol) is rewritten as B (a non-empty string of symbols) – in this case, between C and D (any strings of symbols). In some generative models (see Aspects model), **contextual features** refer to one of the types of (binary) features which are contained in a lexical entry (the others being inherent and rule features); such features provide information as to where in a deep-structure representation a lexical item can occur. Three types of contextual features are recognized: category features, strict sub-categorization features and selectional features.

(3) A term referring to the features of the non-linguistic world in relation to which linguistic units are systematically used. The term 'situation' is also used in this sense, as in the compound term **situational context**. In its broadest sense, situational context includes the *total* non-linguistic background to a text or utterance, including the immediate situation in which it is used, and the awareness by speaker and hearer of what has been said earlier and of any relevant external beliefs or presuppositions. Others restrict the term to what is immediately observable in the co-occurring situation. Further distinctions are usually made in semantics and stylistics, distinguishing, for example, referential and emotive meaning from **contextual meaning**, i.e. information signalled about the kind of use a linguistic unit has in its social context, e.g. whether it has a 'restricted' use (as in social pleasantries, or religious settings), or how it relates

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | to such factors as age, sex or class of the speakers.<br>(4) Other related senses may be found. For example, the general term **context of utterance** is sometimes used to refer to all the factors which systematically determine the form, meaning or appropriateness of utterances (i.e. including both sense (1) and sense (2) of this entry). **Context** is also used in hallidayan linguistics, but in a restricted sense, as the name of an inter-level of language organization which relates linguistic form to extralinguistic situation – it is thus equivalent to semantics. | |
| **Register** | The style of the language that best fits a particular situation. Register can be expressed in two levels of formality: | Formal and informal language. |

**Module 1. Language and background to language learning and teaching. Part 1 – Describing Language and Language skills. Concepts and terminology for describing language skills and subskills. The features of spoken texts.**

| Feature | Definition | Example/s |
|---|---|---|
| **Cohesion** | The way texts are joined together with logical grammar or lexis. | Conjunctions (1st , secondly) Lexical sets, referring words (it, them, this) |
| **Coherence** | This feature when ideas in a text fit together clearly and smoothly and so are logical and make sense to the listener or reader. | Stories with a beginning, middle and end. |

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**Practice: Exercises of Language Skills.**

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